Trends in Education

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THE SCHOOL AND ITS EXTERNAL RELATIONS

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Department of Education and Science

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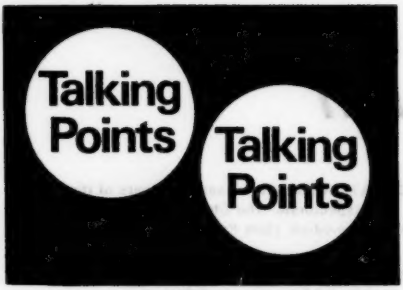


Behaviour problems

There is a widespread impression that the number of children today who give cause for concern to their teachers on account of behaviour problems—delinquency, vandalism, truancy, defiance or sheer indifference to school and all that it offers—is not only large—particularly in inner city areas—but seems to be increasing. Whether this is true or not is difficult to determine. Behaviour disorders still lack precise definition; what is tiresome but acceptable behaviour in one school or culture may be considered unacceptable in another, and in the absence of defined criteria it is difficult to make comparison with earlier estimates. Such evidence as there is, recently summarized by Professor W. D. Wall,[1] suggests that although the number of 'seriously disturbed' children has shown no significant increase over the last 50 years, children showing signs of less serious disturbances, which can nevertheless give rise to considerable difficulties in school both for themselves and their teachers, may be quite numerous. The National Child Development Study[2] showed that, even at the age of seven, 14 per cent of children in the sample could be classified as 'maladjusted' and a further 22 per cent 'unsettled'. A survey of the 9-11 age group in the Isle of Wight[3] reinforced these conclusions, and drew attention to the striking association between emotional disturbances and educational failure. In commenting on the evidence, Wall observed that 'the association between reading failure—and probably other forms of failure to learn—and emotional disturbance seems to be clear; one might suppose that the relation is in most cases reciprocal'. Be it as it may, it is now apparent that the children who give rise to concern and who may need special help at some time in their school lives may number as many as one in every four or five of the school population.

It would of course be naive to assume that educational retardation alone is responsible: the causes of emotional and behaviour disorders are rarely simple. Although difficulties of many children arise in the family, society itself cannot escape responsibility: the decay of authority and of traditional values, the preoccupation of the mass media with violence and defiant behaviour, can hardly fail to influence the values and attitudes of its young members.

The number of children who need some kind of general help is clearly far greater than the number requiring the specialized services of a special school. A minority with severe psychiatric disorders may need in-patient treatment in hospital, but the primary therapeutic agency for the large number of children with emotional or behaviour disorders is the ordinary school. This is the only environment other than the family in which the child spends many of his waking hours; it is, moreover, one which can, theoretically at least, be designed to promote healthy emotional development in a consistently beneficial way. A good primary school can contribute materially to the healthy emotional growth of children by its concern for the individual, its warm personal rela-

[1] Wall, W. D. The problem child in schools. *London Educational Review* 2, No. 2 (1973).

[2] Davie, R.; Butler, N.; Goldstein, H.; *et al. From birth to seven.* Report of the National Child Development Study. London: Longman, for the National Children's Bureau (1972).

[3] Rutter, M.; Tizard, J.; and Whitmore, K.; eds. *Education, health and behaviour.* London: Longman (1970).

tions, its absence of stress and competition, and by its providing stimulating and successful learning experiences. But what of the secondary schools? In some areas the exclusion of 'troublemakers' seems to be unaccompanied by any positive therapeutic measures. Learning failure in children at the age of 11 is, according to the evidence, almost certain to persist to the end of a child's schooldays.

A major responsibility for secondary schools is to give to all their pupils the feeling of belonging to a community where there is a sense of purpose and to provide for every boy and girl, not merely those who are academically gifted, worthwhile activities in which each can gain a sense of achievement. Success, it has been claimed, both contributes to the expectations of future success and seems to increase the individual's capacity to withstand stress and anxiety when he meets it. It is equally true that loss of self-respect, perhaps arising from failure in school work, is a contributory factor to difficult or unruly behaviour. So too are feelings that school is a remote, impersonal and boring institution.

Though much can be done by a good school to provide differentiated learning and social experiences for its pupils, a greater measure of support is needed from the advisory services if it is to give adequate help to children with more deep-seated disorders. Hitherto many child guidance services have dealt in the main with individual children in a clinical setting, and have done little to enable teachers to understand and provide special help for children with behaviour problems. Fortunately, in a few instances, child guidance services have begun to operate more extensively as an advisory and supportive service, and this is a welcome move.

From the researches mentioned above, we know that the number of children who are unhappy, anxious, emotionally immature, have poor self-esteem, and who present problems in school, probably exceeds 200,000 at any one time. Whatever the origins of their condition, schools have to try to help them through their difficulties. If schools are to do this successfully, some of their current practices may need re-examination.

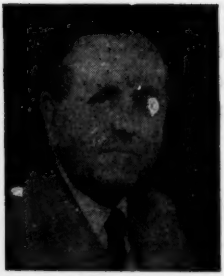
In this issue of TRENDS we introduce a new feature—short news items drawing attention to newsworthy facts, activities or trends. An example appears on page 40 of this issue. Readers are invited to submit items for inclusion. Please include your name and address and the source of your information. Contributions must be brief—no more than 250 words or so at the most.

The school and its external relations

'No parents beyond this line'—the line, as those who remember such situations will know, was painted across the playground just inside the school gate. That line in its own austere way symbolized the gulf that was assumed to lie between the school and the world outside. Of course, even then the idea was absurd. How can the school, which is supposed to be a preparation for that world outside, carry out its task by shutting the world out? Most schools now see the task very differently. Some are, in fact, community schools and act as a focal point for the educational life and the social life of the communities they serve. Some schools have schemes to encourage pupils to become involved in social work in their own areas. Many teach social studies—although they may choose to call it 'civics' or even 'English'. The world is no longer excluded when the classroom door is closed.

S. E. Gunn's article in this issue discusses some of the factors in the local community that can affect the community of the school; A. P. Warwick gives an account of a welfare scheme in which the school and the local community organizations cooperate; Catherine Avent writes about careers education; Anne Corbett argues a case for changing the role of the school governor; and the articles by James Britton, Michael Barratt Brown, and E. C. Mee and K. V. Bailey, though not about the external relations of the school as such, do, as the young lady once expressed it to Thomas Carlyle, 'accept the world'. But we all accept the world now—if only because, to paraphrase Carlyle's reply: 'By God, we'd better'.

The secondary school and the community



S. E. GUNN

S. E. Gunn is Staff Inspector for secondary education

Constructing the school community

The connexion between a secondary school and the community depends in the first instance upon how the pupils are recruited—that is, upon how the *school community* is constructed. Unfortunately, we do not know of any certain way of pleasing everybody in the problem-ridden process of transferring children from primary to secondary schools. And the reorganization of secondary education on comprehensive lines has provided a fresh set of problems as substitutes for the old discontent which afflicted the selected and the not selected, and in particular the latter.

The comprehensive school is likely, like most schools, to want some say in choosing its pupils. On the whole, unless it is a voluntary school, it is unlikely to have much say in detail. It also tends to want what has become known as a balanced entry, meaning by this a balance of measured ability which corresponds to the comparable balance in the larger area of the LEA as a whole, or in a substantial part of it. Of course, as things work in practice, an entry well balanced by measured attainment is also likely to have a suitable balance both socially and in terms of motivation. The comprehensive school will also want to recruit its balanced entry from across the whole ability range. This means not only that selection must have been eliminated but that some comprehensive schools must not recruit more favourably than others.

There are some comprehensive schools which achieve a reasonably balanced entry simply by geographical and demographic accident. Sometimes they are the only secondary school serving a small town and its rural hinterland; otherwise the situation may often be partly the result of fortunate chance, for we do not know any certain way of distributing children between secondary schools which is both acceptable to parents and to the primary schools and also produces a balanced entry in all or even most of the schools. However, to some extent it appears that the conflicting influences of parental choice on the one hand and the preference of schools for a balanced entry on the other can be reconciled. Most LEAs which operate some form of transfer distribution by bands of ability claim that about 85 per cent of secondary entrants go to the school of their first choice. However, the first choice has usually been moderated by guidance of one sort or another, and in particular by the realism of the primary head, though it must be admitted that the figure remains near to 85 per cent whatever the system in use.

In the long run there is the danger that attempts to achieve a balance within each school may lead to protracted disputes between parents and LEAs. Of course, the system may be operated within very broad bands which will achieve only a crude distribution and may allow concealed selection within bands unless the procedure is conducted within the LEA's office. Any system is presumably saved by the fact that there is a silent majority of parents, particularly in inner city areas, who opt for the obvious or the nearest school, but there is also a far from silent minority of articulate parents (now by no means all middle class) who constitute the dissatisfied part of the 15 per cent deprived of their first choice.

Except in the natural one-school areas, the other methods of constructing the secondary school community—whether by moderating parental choice without resort to measured ability and attainment (in some areas objective testing is unpopular with primary teachers) or by simple catchment areas, or by linking primary with secondary schools—all have their problems and none is likely to lead to a pattern of secondary schools each with a comparable

balance of entry. Meanwhile the relentless pressure of parental preference is likely to make some entries more favourably balanced than others while the even more relentless impact of inner city problems creates a large burden of low motivation for the deep urban school.

In spite of our relative lack of success in constructing secondary school communities which satisfy the expectations of the schools themselves and the demands of the parents, we have remained deeply suspicious of the neighbourhood secondary school even though many exist, particularly in urban areas. Inevitably the many one-school areas produce neighbourhood schools, but these are usually in districts which are socially mixed, often largely rural, and in any case too large to be called a neighbourhood—so these schools are often acceptable. But an urban neighbourhood school is usually unacceptable, and educational planning puts a lot of energy into attempts at avoiding them. There is no way of arranging a system of neighbourhood institutions without creating a 'pecking order' of schools and, in any case, still leaving a percentage of parents without the school of their choice. This, then, is where we must begin our look at the relations between the secondary school and the community, at the point at which, in constructing the school community, the interests and needs of three parties, the school, the parents and LEA, have to be reconciled.

The school as a community in its own right

There are those who would deprive the school of its separate existence as a community in its own right. They are de-schoolers and they would devise an alternative system of education. Those, however, who accept the need for an institutional structure of public education must consider the problems of a school's separate corporate feeling of the English school comes from the nineteenth century and has been subsequently copied (as much else in school life has been copied) by succeeding types of school.

So, the English secondary school tends to base itself upon models which did not serve a community in the sense of a neighbourhood. Until 1944, the secondary school, by definition, was a school which selected the 25 per cent of highest ability from a fairly wide area and offered them expectations which were often beyond their social horizons. It could serve its community in the sense that the local grammar school rendered effective service to both municipal and national life by helping to turn out teachers and nurses and others, but in doing so it could lead its own separate life and nourish its own slightly monastic community values. The rituals of its existence were often inward looking.

Comprehensive schools have adopted many of these rituals since they are the stuff of much of English school life. The forms of much pastoral care, the basis of rewards and punishment, homework customs, competitive games, methods of assessment, the annual pieties of exhibitions, speech days and concerts all involve

a school in the corporate fostering of its own separate existence face to face with the world outside.

This was all reasonable enough so long as the school was a central institution serving a very wide area (it is a natural temptation for a very large school now), but can such a school respond to the needs arising from a reconciliation of its own objectives and the complex of legitimate demands made upon it by the community it serves?

First of all, how separate from its surroundings can a school reasonably be? On the whole, educational thought today would wish to minimize the separation of school from society. At some time after the age of 16 the pupils will merge into the world at large to become adult persons, to earn a living, to be citizens and to continue their education. Even during the course of their school lives, parents and many other people outside the school and the education service have a cooperative part to play in the process of schooling. Furthermore, it is a commonplace of recent curriculum development that today's world must play a part in many studies, just as these same studies can often be usefully pursued outside the school and in the world. There is, on the whole, no great intellectual problem in shedding both the monastic and the custodial traditions in school education in Britain. There are, of course, difficulties in working out the practice, but the general willingness of teachers to reduce the separation between the schools and the life of the world is amply demonstrated by many developments of recent years.

Such developments would include the whole field of school/parent relations, careers education and the many other curriculum changes intended to meet pupil needs, work experience and linked courses and school journeys, community service, the many changes in teaching groups and other school organizations intended to foster initiative and self-dependence. But all, or most, of these developments can, and have, taken place in schools which remain to a large degree separate from their communities and, indeed, may often be cultivating habits of thought and patterns of behaviour which are different from those of the community. There is also some indication that parents and others, particularly local employers and shopkeepers, often give a greater esteem to the school which sets itself apart from its environment. For example, in some inner city areas account has to be taken of a distinct parental preference for single-sex schools, and in almost all areas schools are judged by the onlooker by traditional and simple standards of punctuality, appearance and public behaviour.

Perhaps the greatest influence upon a school to retain the characteristics of a community in its own right is the fact that it has certain obligatory tasks which demand an effective organization and constant assessment of standards.

In recent years, many secondary schools have extended their age range and their ability range. At the same time, some of them have

become very large and, though a number of small comprehensives of 750 or fewer pupils have come into existence, the average size of a comprehensive school is probably about 1000 pupils. The schools and the teachers have been faced by the enormous problems involved in organizing the life of these new schools. Both problems of teaching and problems of organization have made new demands, and the schools have been preoccupied with organizing their own corporate existence to provide the conditions necessary for study, and a method of assessing both potential and attainment which is capable of being understood and recorded. No matter how well oriented a school may be towards the world, it will have an obligation to perform these functions, and the performance of them is likely to impose upon the school a considerable separateness from the life of the world.

The demands of the community

If the school must respond to its first duty to be itself and to attend to its own obligations to its pupils, what are the legitimate demands which society makes upon the school?

It is now generally accepted that schooling must be part of an education which can, if an individual so wishes, continue for a lifetime. This has important 'community' implications for teachers for it means that a school must avoid becoming a terminal institution and that it must encourage interests and habits of enquiry which are likely to persist. This is a perplexing task like most of those involved in community education and there is no blueprint for it.

The need for parents to cooperate with the school in the education of their children has perhaps been more fully recognized in the case of young children than in the secondary school. But the whole range of parent involvement in various aspects of secondary school life has made considerable, if patchy, progress and this is likely to be overtaken by the growing demands of parents for a more positive participation. Already parents are being included on governing bodies, and other possible extensions of parental influence are likely as community education develops. Such changes will demand considerable adjustments of attitudes on the part of teachers, pupils and parents themselves.

Much of the curriculum change of recent years has been intended to bring the learning process nearer to the affairs of the real world, and it has come in response to demands from the teachers in the schools rather than from the outside. The overt curriculum, and the hidden curriculum springing from the general life of the school, are likely to become more and more responsive to the needs of the real world, even apart from the demands of community education. This process is likely to be assisted by the common use of premises such as libraries and recreational and sports accommodation between schools, other institutions and the general public. However, the problems involved in running success-

ful schools, which are considerably involved with other institutions and with outside people, must not be underestimated. Neither must we underestimate the changes which must be made in the ethos and discipline of many schools if the community at large is to provide students as opposed to visitors. At this stage we have relatively little experience of these problems.

The community school and current trends

There are important current trends which must have an impact upon the relations between schools and society. On the whole, there is a movement away from very large schools, and new comprehensives are unlikely to contain more than 1000 pupils at the most. There is a growing feeling that the curriculum, certainly up to the age of 16, can be considerably simplified. Increasingly, sixth form studies are being centralized in institutions for 16-19-year-olds, or plans are being developed for curricular cooperation between schools at sixth-form level.

All three of these trends, by emphasizing transfer at 16, i.e. at the statutory leaving age, as well as by organizing smaller, simplified units, might have the effect of detaching the schools from the world. As we have seen, the trends in the other direction are strong and it is unlikely that the schools will turn their backs upon the world. But experience suggests that only a school which has a strong community existence of its own can enter into successful partnership with the world outside.

Welfare

A. P. WARWICK

A. P. Warwick is headmaster of The Deanery School, Southampton

The Deanery School is a mixed comprehensive school of about five hundred children from 12 to 16 years old which serves the dockland and central areas of Southampton. In 1964 the Deanery Mixed Secondary Modern School in dockland merged with the Central Boys' School with the result that the present school finds itself housed in a hotch-potch of Victorian and pre-war premises spread over four sites, three of which are about a mile apart from each other.

The catchment area is an educational priority area and is almost totally working class. Because of demolition, the original secondary modern building finds itself on the fringe of the catchment area in the downtown area of the city, and the development

has been such that it has produced a fragmented community consisting of about half a dozen isolated estates or 'villages' which seem to have little or nothing to do with each other. The largest of these units is a sprawl of pre-war terraced housing which has been largely taken over by immigrants.

It is obvious that the school cannot be a community school in the sense of a village school situated in the centre of the community, and serving its needs because it is right there in the middle of things. Nor do we see ourselves as a community school in the sense of a social centre which offers open house to parents at all hours of the day and night. But we do see ourselves as a community school in the sense that as the neighbourhood school we have a duty to serve its social needs. We feel it is our duty to look after not only our children but their families as well. We look upon ourselves as the prime social agency of the neighbourhood.

Regularly a working party, run by local residents, meets to consider the needs and resources of the area. Anybody can come to these meetings and they are well attended. Subjects range from roadside parking and housing to rubbish dumping and prostitution. There are all kinds of subjects of deep concern to the local inhabitants and I consider it my duty to be involved. On the very next morning after one of our meetings I was talking to the school about the importance of seeing that empty milk bottles were returned to the shops from which they were bought and not left outside on the pavement. Not, one would think, the normal subject for a headmaster's homily from the platform. But as far as we are concerned, anything which is of concern to the neighbourhood is of concern to us.

A caring staff

The greatest asset which the school has is a caring and stable staff. I became the headmaster of the original secondary modern school in April 1963. My deputy headmistress joined me a term later. She is totally committed to the welfare of our children and their families, and so is the rest of my staff. The rate of turnover on my staff is absolutely minimal. This means that we know the families of the children and they know us. This basic fact of staff ability is of overriding importance. It transcends any kind of paper structure about year group or house organization. We in fact organize ourselves on a year group basis but there is so much pastoral care that goes on outside of, and in spite of, the structured schemes during a handicraft or home economics lesson, for instance.

One of our sets of premises is known as Site Four—for no other reason than that it was the fourth of our sites to be acquired. It was, in fact, a disused ambulance station in dire need of repair when we took it over about 10 years ago. But with its outhouses and garage we saw great potential in it for so-called Newsom courses. Soon after its acquisition, a man was appointed to teach religious education and, of all things, rural science. His base for rural studies

was Site Four, a brick and concrete jungle in the shadow of Southampton pier. But the new master, who had in fact seen long service as a Baptist minister, saw both the need and the opportunity for contact with animals among the children of this neighbourhood. Within no time at all, a fully fledged animal farm of pigs, rabbits and poultry was thriving down in Southampton's dockland. But Site Four soon became a centre where something much more was being done than the teaching of rural science. The boy or girl who found themselves at odds with society in and outside of school soon found a place where they could take time off to think and recuperate to form a relationship with a caring and compassionate adult who was able to use the civilizing effect of caring for domestic creatures to cement a sound and helpful relationship between two human beings. Only the other day he was taking part in a programme on Radio Solent with two ex-pupils who had benefited from such an experience as I have tried to describe.

I hesitate, however, to name individual cases as there are other members of my staff who do equally effective work through the medium of their subjects, whether it be sailing, motor vehicle maintenance, cinematography, camping, making trips abroad, trekking across Dartmoor, taking groups on weekend visits, or just plain English, geography and other so-called formal subjects. The important thing is that some kind of relationship of confidence and trust be established between teacher and pupil—and I do not think a non-teaching counsellor can possibly form this kind of bond.

Outside agencies

The year group organization is effective because it is active and positive. To my mind the situation where a tutor meets his own group and expects them to sit and tell him their troubles is a complete and utter waste of time. The important thing as far as we are concerned is for the teacher to spot early signs of distress. This may show itself in a variety of ways—it may be in disruptive behaviour in the classroom, it may be in truancy, it may be in just doing and saying nothing—and these latter are the most difficult symptoms to diagnose. Signs of distress, once noted, are passed from teacher to form tutor, to year group master or mistress, and, if necessary, the matter is referred to the second master, deputy head or myself. If it is felt that urgent action is needed after full discussion between staff and pupil, the first person we normally contact is the parent and our immediate link in this respect is our education welfare officer. We are fortunate in that we have one education welfare officer for our catchment area, and an immigrant welfare officer for the immigrants in the area who can converse with them in their native language. If it is a family matter rather than a school matter we contact the Social Services Department. We may think it necessary to get in touch with child guidance, or a health visitor or a family doctor—it depends on the individual circumstances.

If the case is not of immediate urgency it will be referred to our welfare sub-committee. This meets normally once a month and to it we invite the head teachers of the four primary schools in the area, the education and immigrant welfare officers, a senior representative of the local section of the Social Services Department, heads of year groups and senior members of staff.

At these meetings we discuss all those cases that are causing concern. At the beginning of the new school year it is particularly helpful to have present the heads of the middle school so that we can have the benefit of their knowledge of any members of the new intake who seem to be having trouble. They can often help us with older pupils too. Once a term, normally shortly after half-term, I call a meeting of the full welfare committee. To this we invite primary heads, education and immigrant welfare officers, social services, heads of year groups, senior school staff and, in addition, a representative of the police, child guidance, the school psychological service, health visitor, the careers officer and anybody else who is involved in the social welfare of the area and who may be able to help us with our agenda. On one occasion we had the pleasure of the company of the chairman of the local bench of magistrates to discuss the matter of truancy. As to the police, I make no apology for the fact that they are invited. They are most concerned about social welfare and are very eager to help in a preventive and not in a punitive role. Last summer a police sergeant who is a particular friend of the school accompanied a party from the ROSLA general studies group to France and stayed with them there for a week. He has been a faithful attender at our meetings as has our local 'man on the beat'. The primary aim of our meetings is to prevent trouble rather than to remedy it and to decide among ourselves who is best fitted to deal with each case. Sometimes more than one agency may be involved. In a recent case, social services, the school psychologist and the health visitor all involved themselves as it was a case of some urgency, and our local policeman kept an eye on the house. One important point is that if we are all sitting round a table together we can see that we do not tread on each other's toes and can prevent unnecessary duplication of duties. Another very important result is that we can get to know each other and identify our various functions.

I am not suggesting for one moment that we can find a solution for every problem, but we certainly feel that our meetings are worth while. The proof of this lies in the fact that we have been meeting regularly for nearly 10 years and I am convinced in the light of my personal experience that our problems in school are far fewer now than they were 10 years ago. The climate of the school has changed out of all recognition. No doubt many external factors have contributed to this, but we like to feel that we have had a hand in it too.

I suppose there was a time when a school liked to feel that it could solve all its own problems. I think that time has gone. What

success we have had is due to the fact that together with all other social agencies involved we, together with our colleagues in the primary schools, have all worked as a team. This of course brings with it its own problems. The most fundamental one is that all the agencies involved are hopelessly under-staffed. There is so much goodwill and so much that could be done if only the staff were available. For instance the case load upon the child guidance department is so great that there is an automatic delay of 16 weeks over each case referred to them. The recommendation has been made that in order to get the child seen quickly he should be excluded. But exclusion would be the worst possible thing that could happen to some children and to cure one ill might well create a worse one.

To exclude or not to exclude is often a dilemma. The welfare of the individual has to be weighed against that of the school. The knowledge and expertise of the school and the other agencies represented on our committee ought always to be taken into account and that the final decision becomes the result of discussion between all parties concerned.

Knowing the child

We are a small school and this is an advantage of overriding importance. As I have said before—we know the children and their families, and they know us. It has been possible for one head of year group to interview each parent individually before the new intake has arrived in the school and, when they have been at school, to take the whole year group out for weekend trips in different groups at different times—just to get to know them. Smaller is certainly better when it comes to pastoral care.

Qualitatively we are at a disadvantage, not because of the area in which we live but because of the vagaries of the Education Act —and, if I may, I should like to finish with an earnest plea on behalf of the disadvantaged child from a socially handicapped environment. Parental choice is one thing and should be allowed to operate as the result of sound reasoning and logical argument. But a situation which gives a prejudiced and unthinking parent the idea that transfer to another school is simply there for the asking is quite another matter. We are a neighbourhood comprehensive school and in that case we expect to receive the children from our area. However, we found that each year more and more of our abler native children were opting successfully to go to a school outside the area and this flight of the abler pupil reached alarming proportions until we made strong representation to the local authority and since then the situation has improved. Of course, one can understand the feelings of the parent, but if this sort of thing is allowed to go on unchecked the results for the school can be disastrous. The dice are loaded against the disadvantaged child. He has nothing else with which to pull himself up by his boot straps and these get a bit worn at times. He needs to be given a

break. When he is at school he needs the company and the inspiration of children abler than himself, and does not want to feel that he is just one of the left-overs. He naturally lacks ambition. He needs to rub shoulders with those who have it. His standards are low. He needs to be with those whose standards are higher.

Teachers need the opportunity to teach the more able as well as the less able children, and if they do not get it they may well leave and the child will suffer. It is simply not fair to cream off the better pupils and expect a school to cope with what is left, and then to call it a comprehensive school. It is an offence to staff and pupils, and handicaps both right from the start. But given a fair chance we will do our best to solve our problems. The laws of nature do not protect the weak. It is incumbent upon society to do so. 'For unto everyone that hath shall be given but from him that hath not shall be taken away even that which he hath'.

The world of work*

CATHERINE AVENT

Miss Avent is Careers Guidance Inspector for the ILEA

We know from Schools Council Inquiry No. 1 that young school leavers would like to have more preparation for the transition from school to work and a curriculum during their last years at school which seems to them more relevant to the demands which will be made upon them when they enter employment. This could be narrowly interpreted as a request for more time to be given to the acquisition of vocationally useful skills such as technical drawing or shorthand; as such it would be resisted by many teachers, administrators and inspectors as militating against the full personal development of the pupil and the widest possible preparation for adult life. Schools are not islands, however, and in the current atmosphere are increasingly aware of the pressures exerted by the world around them. There is nothing new, of course, in staff room discussion of the constraints imposed upon the curriculum by the requirements of university and college entrance; teachers are well aware of the effect of a consistent trend during the last 20 years for higher levels of attainment to be demanded by the 'consumers' of the products of our schools. When the GCE was introduced most professions could be entered by a leaver with five 'O' levels, but now most professional bodies have raised their entry require-

* Careers education in secondary schools was the subject of a survey by HM Inspectors, the results of which were published in Education Survey No. 18 in November 1973.

ments to two 'A' levels in line with modern university matriculation standards.

While pupils, and to some extent their parents, are asking for school courses to be vocationally relevant, careers officers are telling teachers that employers prefer their young recruits to be well educated in the general academic subjects which develop literacy, oracy and numeracy.

How then can the world of work be brought beneficially into the classroom as an ally to the teachers? Well presented, the demands of employment can reinforce teachers' claims for the advantages of extended education.

Preparing the ground

A good programme of careers education can be instrumental in helping to promote mutual understanding between teachers in the schools and the employers in industry, commerce and the public services, besides its obvious utility in helping to prepare pupils for the demands of working life. It requires a headmaster who believes in it and a head of department with energy, imagination, skills and status to make the most of the contribution of his staffroom colleagues as well as the many outside agencies available to supplement the school's resources. The head may have to convince his senior colleagues of the claims of this non-examination subject if time is to be provided in a crowded curriculum to which others are anxious to add new subjects or activities. Careers education, which is the work done for classes or groups as distinct from the guidance and counselling of an individual pupil, can be justified by the normal criteria of traditional subjects: the acquisition of knowledge, the development of skills and the promotion of attitudes to human relationships. Even the keenest careers teachers with cooperative colleagues among the academic and admintsrative staff of the school need outside support. Their first external ally is the careers officer from the Careers Service of the local education authority.

The careers officer

The Careers Service is expanding fast in order to fulfil its new responsibilities to clients over the age of 18 and to students in higher and further education. As it moves away from an image of the 'juvenile labour exchange' to a comprehensive advisory role covering the needs of students in schools and colleges, it is able to cooperate in depth with the programmes of careers activities evolved by careers teachers on the staff of the schools. Many careers officers have regarded their classroom work as the most satisfying part of their job and there has even been a tendency in some schools for the careers officer to be regarded almost as a supply teacher available to take a class of fourth or fifth year pupils, show a film or even accompany a group on a works visit.

Careers teachers are now much more aware of the particular specialisms of their colleagues in the Careers Service and the need to make the best use of their complementary skills in the interests of educational economy and a more effective service to the pupils. Careers officers bring into the school not only their obvious detailed knowledge of the local and national employment scene but also an appreciation of the intangible aspects of work which teachers do not have time to discover for themselves by constant visiting and which are not apparent from books, pamphlets or even films designed to show as objectively as possible the demands, requirements and satisfactions of jobs at different levels. Careers officers develop, moreover, a capacity to judge the potentialities of young people in relation to the demands of the next stage in their lives because, although their contact is a comparatively superficial one, they are able to compare the leavers from one school with those from others in the district. Even the fact that the careers officer is not a member of the school staff may give him an advantage when trying to elicit from a diffident or perhaps unsuccessful or even tiresome pupil some ideas of the way in which he sees his future.

Outsiders and outside visits

Most secondary schools reckon to have outsiders coming to talk to groups of pupils. A good proportion of these visitors represent part of the careers education programme. Sometimes the arrangements are *ad hoc* in that the head of the school may invite a fellow Rotarian or an Old Boy or one of the governors to give a talk about his life and work; in other cases there may be a tradition of regular weekly talks by representatives of a wide range of professions and occupations or the school may prefer to have a one-off event such as a careers convention or exhibition.

People have very firm views on the desirability of the careers event. It has the effect of highlighting the importance of careers work and of enforcing some recognition of this upon other members of staff who, in cases where the careers programme is a continuing one but at a less obvious level, may find very little impact upon their work. If the whole school is disrupted for an exhibition or a series of talks and films—in some cases lasting every afternoon for a fortnight—then it is impossible for teachers to be unaware that the head regards careers work as important. There are dangers in the large event which can descend into something approaching a crude hiring fair, unless it is very well organized and the pupils and exhibitors properly briefed as to its real purpose —which is, of course, to enable young people and their parents to talk to representatives of firms, colleges and careers but not specifically to inquire about a job with them.

Within the memory of the longest serving secondary school teacher, pupils have been visiting work places. If a whole class is sent to a local engineering firm or office or to see the working of the telephone exchange, it is probably fair to suggest that this

is an educational activity and not part of the vocational guidance of the pupils concerned. Where a small number of well prepared and interested pupils can be taken round a work place, there can be very real educational advantages besides the opportunity of helping one or two in the group to decide whether they would or would not like to work in that sort of organization.

An extension of this long-standing practice is the increasingly popular scheme of work experience or work appreciation. Recent legislation empowering schools to permit pupils in the last year of statutory schooling to have work experience is likely to lead to a great increase in the opportunities available for pupils to spend a complete week or fortnight or to go for one day or one half day a week throughout the year to some local factory, office, hospital, and so on. While there has been in the past a fair amount of work experience for sixth form pupils during their school holidays and designed to give them opportunities to see the application of the sciences they may be studying to 'A' levels in an industrial or research setting, work experience is generally more common for the non-examination pupils in schools. What is not always realized is the amount of time required on the part of school staff to organize a successful programme of work experience and the difference in its educational value when the pupils have been well prepared beforehand. Most teachers who have had experience of these schemes claim that pupils gain demonstrably in self-confidence as a result, even if they have not been able to make any more definite decision on a job as a result of trying their hand at two or three different types of work before they leave school. Colleges of further education can frequently provide opportunities for pupils to sample machines, materials and methods which would not be available to them in the secondary school, and schemes of practical experience in a college form a useful addition to the more formal link courses which many colleges provide in order to help secondary school pupils who want to study a subject which is not available to them in school.

Other resources

The world of work includes, of course, other aspects of further and higher education and many secondary school pupils have opportunities to see films and take radio and television programmes on a regular basis. The greater availability of videotape recording equipment should lead to an expansion of this type of activity. Tape recorders are used to give pupils practice in interviewing and sometimes to acquire interesting insights into job satisfaction and frustration when a class is asked to interview various members of the school supporting staff or members of the public invited to meet the class for this purpose. Universities, polytechnics and colleges of all kinds participate in the programme of visits and, where their resources permit, encourage members of academic staff admissions or appointments officers to visit schools to meet groups of pupils.

There are many other resources open to an energetic careers teacher. Past pupils of the school can bring a refreshing approach to the list of speakers and can be particularly helpful if they are encouraged to meet present pupils on an informal basis to discuss student life, academic and personal success and difficulties, how to live on one's grant, and other such topics. Many voluntary agencies take part in school careers programmes as do other social services and officers of local authorities and central government departments. Representatives of trade unions welcome the opportunity of helping to correct some misapprehensions about union activity which pupils may derive from the media, and a resourceful careers teacher may well incorporate into his team of extramural helpers parents, who are often thought of as receivers of information from the schools but seldom regarded as a useful source of knowledge and experience themselves. Since virtually all the fathers and, statistically, half the mothers are in employment, this is a resource which can add another dimension to a good careers education programme.

Clearly the amount of careers education in any school depends upon many other factors than the mere energy of the head of careers department. Some schools are geographically situated in areas where there is little opportunity to present to the pupils a wide variety of activities. Pressure of examinations and crowded syllabuses militate against the release of many pupils in some schools for guidance in a developmental sense as distinct from the crisis counselling which so many require at those points in their secondary school career where they have to make educational or vocational decisions. There is no doubt, however, that young people themselves are beginning to demand more contacts with the outside world as represented by the world of work and that a well-designed programme of activities can be a motivating force to higher educational achievement and not the disturbance to study which it has sometimes been regarded in the past.

Reforming school governors

ANNE CORBETT

Anne Corbett is a freelance educational journalist

I thought Rhodes Boyson achieved a remarkable double the other day. He argued that the lesson of the Highbury Grove saga of appointing a new head should be to strengthen the school governors and to increase the power of the head. He seemed to want to

strengthen the non-professional watchdog and the professional being watched.

There are many such oddities in the campaigns to reform school governors and managers. Just now there is a remarkable consensus in favour of reform. It is not only the pressure groups like the Confederation for the Advancement of State Education and the National Association of Governors and Managers who want change. The three main political parties, the local authority associations and the teachers' organizations want it too.

That is the sort of spectrum-spanning line-up which is usually enough to secure reform. But the issue is not quite as simple as it seems. A government initiative could not be concerned with merely strengthening the powers of school governors. Nor, indeed, do I think it should.

For changing school governors and managers changes a whole lot of other things too. It opens up new opportunities for conflict, as well as cooperation, between local education authorities and head teachers and staff and pupils and parents and the local community. Increasing governors' powers could be to open a Pandora's box of possibilities which are not in pupils' interests. The case for reform is more subtle than that.

Implications

It means, I think, recognizing that changes in the role of school governing and managing bodies must be within limits that enables a local education authority to operate. The LEA has the duty to provide education: it needs to exercise a control, therefore, which can be democratically challenged. It needs to decide, for example, a pattern of comprehensive schooling. It ought to be able to send advisers or inspectors into schools to sort out problems or to pick up good ideas. It ought, in short, to be able to maintain minimum standards.

But that leaves a large area for governors, teachers, parents, pupils and the community. It is an area which, I believe, can be more clearly defined in terms of their respective roles than in any hierarchy of power. Power may be ultimately an issue. Sheffield pioneered individual managing bodies for primary schools and more broadly based governing bodies for secondary schools to reduce the local political power over schools. The NUT and the NAS want class teachers to participate in running schools to reduce the power of the head.

Nevertheless I maintain that reform can, on the whole, be more effectively discussed in terms of job definitions. My case for reforming governors and managers—and indeed for introducing them to those many authorities which still lack boards for individual schools—is the case for doing a job which has been either ignored or has been inappropriately taken over by teachers.

It may have happened more by default than by design. But it is now widely believed that teachers control the schools and, in

particular, shape the curriculum. It was not intended by the 1944 Act, nor by the articles of school government or rules of management. It must be outside any responsibilities that teachers hold as a consequence of uniquely professional skills. Yet it happened.

It is surprising in a way that teachers should want to claim such a brief. It lands them with a responsibility over which they have little control. They put themselves in the position of the heart surgeon who takes upon himself the ethical responsibility to carry out a transplant and the economic judgement to divert the resources to do it. But his technical expertise is no qualification to exercise the other responsibilities.

So in schools: the head teacher who takes all the decisions about the style of the school, leaving the staff right out in the cold and diverting the governors to discussing the colour of school socks or the best way of mending the lavatory locks, seems to be asking for trouble. Active school governors, informed of school policy because they helped to shape it, can help enormously, especially with unpopular schools. They can help to sell the school to its neighbourhood, using the local grapevine for the good things about the school as well as the bad. They can try to soothe the ruffled feelings caused by noisy pupils leaving school; they can help to persuade people that a school is not necessarily functioning on the lowest academic standards merely because large numbers of its pupils are black. They can feed back into the school some of the local views.

Governors and managers can do these things if they are allowed to. But two changes are necessary—and again they have more to do with accurate job definition than power.

What needs to be done

Their membership must be changed. If governors are to take a public responsibility for the style of the school, they must represent all those who have a direct interest in the way the school is run. Not just the local authority, which they have represented in the past. Not just all the non-authority interests, as in some of the most community-based suggestions for governors. (Sheffield, too, has landed in this difficulty with some of its large schools deprived of council connexions.) Governors and managers, as NAGM's model instruments suggest and as is now widely accepted, need to represent the local education authority, the parents and pupils, the head teacher and staff, and possibly separately, the local community.

This should, incidentally, make it easier for head teachers to resolve their ambivalence about being members of governing bodies. If it can be seen that the governors' role lies intergrating the various interests connected with the school, instead of being one of the series of interests themselves, there is no point in heads staying outside. There still is conflict, even when the membership

is reformed. But bringing together all these interests ensures that the conflict is in the right place at the right time.

However, it is not enough to change the membership. Governors cannot act with any conviction unless they are well informed. This means changing the way that most governing bodies work and the way that most head teachers treat them. Again it is a change of style rather than a change in power, and I do not believe that in discussions of reform, their method of work has been sufficiently emphasized.

Take the example of the curriculum and conduct of the school. Governors traditionally control it. But, as John White has described, ever since a Conservative government dropped the government imposed school code in 1926, the curriculum has been seen as a predominantly professional concern. Many heads operate on the assumption that the day-to-day running of the school, for which the head is traditionally responsible, actually means everything that goes on within the school walls. Mrs. Thatcher even approved revised articles for Huntingdon and Peterborough which gave the control of the curriculum to the head teacher in theory as well as practice.

Everyone can agree that it would be intolerable to have the curriculum politically directed, and changed with every election. It would be intolerable to have governors telling teachers how to teach. But the curriculum, above all, seems the area where reformed governing bodies should be openly involved in the general policy. For it is an area of choice, and as the consensus about educational values disappears, it is all the more important that the choices that the school makes about curriculum and style can be widely defended.

In practice this must mean that the school should do all it can to educate its governors. It should keep them in touch with what is going on in school—perhaps by a having a different group of staff to explain their work at the beginning of each governors' meeting. It should bring to their notice changes that are being considered. Equally governors should report back to the staff the views that they hear outside.

The same sort of argument goes for finance. At present few county schools control any funds. But schemes like the ILEA's, are increasing: this gives schools control over 5 per cent of their resources. Leicestershire, which is giving the users control over funds for the community centres, plans to go even further. If the governors are to play any part at all, again it means that they have to be involved at an early stage.

Fulfilling the role

Three changes seem to me to be needed for governing bodies to fulfil this forum role. Head teachers need to be more candid, and that is not easy when they have expected to be able to act almost unchallenged.

Someone needs to see that governing bodies do not have to rely for all their information on the head. In some areas the political parties do this. In some, local education authorities have run courses, usually heavily oversubscribed. NAGM is another obvious source. Its newsletter tries to help governors to function more effectively. It ought to publish its training materials. It encourages local NAGMs to give the local groups of governors support.

Most important of all, though, is some action from the DES. That may seem odd, given that most of what I have said could be achieved within the terms of existing instruments and articles (Huntingdon's and Peterborough's apart). I can think of examples in my own local authority of enterprising governing bodies which have reformed themselves and given a lead to the authority, even in terms of traditional instruments and articles. They use their coopted places to bring in parents and pupils, they bring in teachers, precluded from being governors, as observers, they try to reflect some of the local ethnic mix, they set up subcommittees for particular purposes.

New directions

But the issue is not what authorities or individual boards can do. It is what they ought to do. It requires the Secretary of State to outline new minimum standards. This must mean some sort of exhortation to encourage authorities to set up individual governing and managing bodies, and to encourage it in the name of more effective schools. Although cost is a factor, two points can be made: there are benefits to the reform according to Sheffield; the authority claims it now knows far more about its own schools. Clerking, the major cost, does not have to be the local education authority's responsibility. The old North Riding had clerked its governors like the voluntary schools, with a member of the governing body. The practice is spreading round Yorkshire.

Secondly, an attempt to introduce new minimum standards requires new model instruments and articles. The instruments need to redefine membership in terms of those key groups directly interested in the school. The articles need to be made more explicit at one or two points. Nothing can be taken for granted, not even that heads will consult with their staff.

York provides the best example of how the governors' duty to consult their community should be written in, too. In York (now part of North Yorkshire) they are empowered to receive from parents, local employers and others 'ideas and suggestions relating to the school and to submit to the authority suggestions on any matter relating to the conduct of the school which would be to the advantage of the school'. Also, 'managers and governors shall have the right and duty to acquaint themselves with matters concerning the curriculum and organization of the school and where appropriate to pass on such facts'.

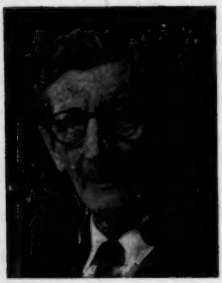
The balance of interests and the continuous involvement of governors at levels of general policy are crucial. I do not need to remind TRENDS readers of the dangers of remote executive bodies or that detailed lay control must be a recipe for reaction. But there are new possibilities for governors if they can be freed of the old image of a decrepit emergency service appearing on occasions embarrassing to the head or the local education authority: being the fall guys to refuse to publish poems, to take an inflexible line on socks or to get themselves tied in knots over appointments which they do not know enough about. The new direction, though, needs a national signpost.

The energy crisis and the paper shortage earlier this year affected everyone to some degree. Naturally enough, they affected newspapers and periodicals even more. In addition, TRENDS found itself for a time without a printer. These difficulties combined to make our dates of publication too irregular for any editor's comfort. We hope (with our editorial fingers firmly crossed) to publish next year and thereafter in February, June, September, and December.

We shall also be making a small but important change in the way we number each issue so that the number will bear some relation to the year of publication. Next February's issue will be numbered 1975/1, next June's 1975/2, and so on, and the first issue of 1976 will be numbered 1976/1. Would librarians and others please note that there will therefore be no TRENDS 37 as such. This change coincides with the beginning of the fourth binder for TRENDS, the first three having contained twelve issues each.

What is 'English'?

The English teacher's responsibilities are often difficult to define. What should they be? What, in effect, is 'English'?



JAMES BRITTON

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One of the main committees of the Dartmouth Anglo-American Seminar in 1966 was set to answer the question, 'What is English'? I have often enough been a member of a group of teachers who, though we began by tackling some more specific problem, have found ourselves eventually facing that same question, and have discovered it to be a desert of the mind in which we have lost each other and ourselves. The Dartmouth group, after much discussion, arrived not at an answer but at a re-framing of the question: 'What goes on in English lessons?' Pursuing this, they were at least able to survey the range of possibilities and realize the Protean nature of what we have been pleased to call 'English' as we have written it into the timetable. In the years since Dartmouth, I believe we have seen the emergence of some order in the diversity, the beginnings of 'a profile' of the English teacher's responsibilities.

Dartmouth brought together, in America, two U.S. national bodies (the National Council of Teachers of English and the Modern Languages Association) and one from this country (the National Association for the Teaching of English, then in its third year of existence). It was followed by a flood of publications, notable among them John Dixon's *Growth Through English.* The three associations met again, in England, at the University of York in 1971 and this time they were joined by the Canadian Council of Teachers of English, formed in 1967. The flood at York was a tide of people—530 of them for a week as compared with 50 at Dartmouth for a month—and its influence lay principally in what they took away with them. Next year, in Canada, we shall try a combined operation: 10 days for some 60 delegates at Banff in May and an open conference for all who can manage it in Charlottetown in August. A contingent from the Australian Association of Teachers of English will be there. After that, in 1979, the venue will be somewhere in Australia.

At Dartmouth we had to begin by talking our way out of a confrontation between American and British views. Sharp enough while it lasted, this phase was soon over and, though lively differences developed, they were no longer on a trans-Atlantic basis. University schools of linguistics and of literature formed two nuclei,

school teachers and teacher trainers a third. And for the rest of the month the three parties sought a common wave-length.

One of the smaller working-parties had as its topic, 'The Response to Literature'. A few sentences from the report prepared by its chairman, Professor D. W. Harding, stand out as of particular importance, not so much for what they say about literature as for what they imply about *language*:

> 'Though central attention should be given to literature in the ordinary sense, it is impossible to separate response to literature sharply from response to other stories, films, or television plays, or from children's own personal writing or spoken narrative. In all of these the student contemplates represented events in the role of a spectator, not for the sake of active intervention. But since his response includes in some degree accepting or rejecting the values and emotional attitudes which the narration implicitly offers, it will influence, perhaps greatly influence, his future appraisals of behaviour feeling'.[1]

Much that was discussed at York five years later might be seen as a later stage in exploring the effect of that bracketing of literature with children's own talk and writing. Seeing the two together forces us to look beyond the words on the page and to see the *process* of writing and the social *context* in which it takes place. As we do so, some of the diverse concerns of the English lesson begin to fall into place as parts of a single purpose. One American teacher summed up her experiences at York in these words:

> 'I have been looking for an over-riding structural principle for my English program. At the York Conference I was exposed to the British concept of 'language' and the work being done to use growth and communication models and language theories to understand and organize the sequence and types of language experiences students have. It will be possible for me now to create more appropriate language environments and situations for my students, recognizing that the previously fragmented aspects of the English program are related by their common denominator, language'.

Understanding through cooperation

In the world of scholarship at large I believe 1966 (coinciding with Dartmouth) might justifiably be seen as the beginning of a new era of language studies. There has developed since about that time a more fruitful cooperation between linguists, psychologists and sociologists than anything we have had hitherto. As a result, a new understanding is available to us of the role of language in child development, in learning and, indeed, in living; and we no

[1] *Response to Literature*, edited James Squire. National Council of Teachers of English, Illinois, 1968, p. 11.

longer have to rely upon an inadequate psychology of human learning derived from stimulus/response experiments with animals.[1] It would be misleading to claim too direct a relationship between that scholarship and the policies that underlie our teaching: much that scholars are engaged on remains beyond our reach, and much that we do as teachers continues, rightly and properly, to beg some of the questions they are trying to answer. But the two enterprises are certainly in touch: and that fact encourages me to claim that in the progression from Dartmouth to York the development of a language-based theory to explain what goes on in English lessons is a major feature.

To put it that way, however, is to claim too little. The theory relates to learning and teaching in all subjects of the curriculum. It throws light, that is to say, not only on the structure of work in English but also upon the larger structure of which English forms a part.

One of the contributions to the York Conference came from the School Council Writing Research Project. This is not the place to describe that work in detail,[2] but the categories of language use, or function, which the project team devised set up a useful framework for what I have to say here.

These categories pick up the distinction quoted earlier from D. W. Harding's Dartmouth report. They distinguish, that is, between language in the role of *participant*—all the practical and calculating, analytic and theoretical ways in which language is used to get things done: to instruct, persuade, inform, to record, report, generalize, hypothesize—and on the other hand, language in the role of *spectator*, where we contemplate recounted experiences, real or imagined, in order to evaluate them and so fit them into our sense of what life is like for us, each as individuals. To make a crude analogy, if everything we *do* in the world constitutes 'an experience', we spend much of our time collecting experiences, and that is activity in the role of participant. Organizing our collection to our own satisfaction, bringing out its highlights of feeling and belief, resolving its contradictions, in short *digesting* experience, that is the purpose for which we take up the role of spectator.

Three categories

Upon this distinction the Writing Research team proposed three main categories of language function, Transactional, Expressive and Poetic. Expressive language is familiar to us as ordinary informal conversation and reflects the circumstances of such usage; it is loosely structured to follow the preoccupations of the speakers;

[1] Much of this recent research is described in Courtney Cazden's admirable book, *Child Language and Education*, (New York, Holt Rinehart and Winston, 1972).

[2] The project report, *The Development of Writing Abilities, 11 to 18* (Macmillan and Company, for the Schools Council) will be published in 1975.

the situation is a relaxed one and the mode of speech 'natural' or undemanding; the speakers share each other's *company* and this may be as important a feature as any exchange of views or news; what is said will tend to be unintelligible or of little significance outside the context in which it is spoken.

Language in the role of participant covers a spectrum from the Expressive to the Transactional. If we think now of the written language, it will be evident that young children's attempts at meeting the demands of a verbal transaction (for example, setting out instructions for feeding a classroom pet) are likely to result in expressive writing, the form closest to their speech. As they come to meet these demands more fully their writing will move along the spectrum towards the transactional end; it will become more explicit, more concerned with accuracy of reference, less self-revealing. As a developmental sequence this movement has two applications. First, in tackling any transactional task in a new and unfamiliar field there is likely to be an initial exploratory stage best achieved in expressive writing, and this could be true of any writer, however experienced. Secondly, greater maturity and experience as a writer will be accompanied by an increase in the proportion of transactional writing as compared with expressive writing in the participant role.

Writing in the role of spectator covers the other spectrum, that from Expressive to Poetic. We might illustrate it on the one hand by a chatty letter in which we share recent experiences with a friend, and on the other by a carefully shaped story or poem. Thus the change is one of increasing *order* or organization so that at the poetic end we have the presentation of a 'verbal object' in which formal patterning carries an important part of the meaning.

So much it was necessary to say in order to add that I believe a useful way of defining the area of operations in English lessons might be to identify it with the area of language use covered by this continuum from the Expressive to the Poetic. English has traditionally given a prominent place to literature, but a focus on literature has ill-defined or even mistaken implications for what the pupils themselves shall write. A focus upon language in the spectator role would provide guidelines both for what is written and what is read, and would link the two within one context. The links are powerful because they are not contrived: the reading and the writing share in fact a single rationale. Two notions are essential to it: first, that we take up the role of spectator for evaluative purposes and the base-line for the evaluation is, potentially, the total experience of the individual. (It is, in other words, a 'stock-taking' process.) And secondly that the movement from expressive to poetic represents an increasing degree of organization; the higher the degree of organization, the more effectively are the 'stock-taking' adjustments made, and this is true whether we are reading or writing.

Language-based theory of learning

To say that the language spoken, written and read as the core of subject English is language about personal experience is to make a rough beginning in the right direction. To see it as spoken and written 'from an individual stance'—man *vis-a-vis* his world—is to move in a little nearer. Perhaps a fuller understanding of what is involved in the distinction between participant and spectator role language may take us further yet in setting up a practicable guide to teaching. It is clear, for example, that 'personal experiences' may be recorded, reported, analysed and built into theories of individual and social behaviour: that is to say, we may use participant role language upon them. But such uses, familiar to the psychologist and the sociologist, have never been part of the stock-in-trade of the English teacher. His approach to personal experiences has been in another mode, and perhaps it is to that mode that the term 'spectator role language' applies.

To the emergence of a language-based theory of learning I would relate a number of the trends we have seen developing in schools in recent years. Thus, a growing confidence in widening the range of fiction thought to be appropriate at various stages, and an extension of concern to include verbal-visual arts as sources of experience in English lessons; a much surer sense of objectives in children's own autobiographical, fictional and poetic writing; a strengthening conviction that work in school must build upon all that a child's own language has achieved for him in infancy; and hence, new attitudes to 'the speech of the home'; growing confidence in the role of *discovery* in all learning and hence in the value of talk and writing as instruments of learning in all parts of the curriculum; and with this an increasing recognition of the need for school staffs in consultation to develop a school policy for 'language across the curriculum'.

The unity of adult education

Adult education, the author argues, should be seen not just as a functional training service or as a discipline with a certain body of educational theory and technique but as a movement of human liberation

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Needs

The concept of 'permanent education' embraces, according to the Russell Report,[1] an extensive range of needs which include—'remedial education . . . balancing education . . . second-chance education . . . up-dating . . . education about education . . . counselling . . . creativity . . . physical education . . . intellectual education . . . role education . . . social and political education . . . the special needs of those who are handicapped and disadvantaged'.

Typology, the cataloguing of categories, whether of art forms or of human needs, is of value in identifying differences in structure and in purpose. The danger is that one may miss the wood in counting the trees, sacrifice the substance in grasping the form. Thus, Jephthah, the Judge, sent into exile and recalled to captain the Israelites against the children of Ammon, overcame them in battle, but sacrificed his daughter, his only child, by the vow he made in calling on the Lord to aid him. So the adult educator outcast from the university walls, called back to save the kingdom from Mammon, is in danger of vowing to destroy his own progeny in the moment of victory.

It is tempting to stretch the analogy even further, but what I am trying to say is that adult education, in this country at least, has bred a tradition not only of teaching technique but of purpose outside the walls in what may be described as the 'retrieval' of students. This purpose could easily be lost in a great, and otherwise welcome, expansion of continuing education for those who are already 'hooked' on education, as are an ever-increasing number of our fellow citizens.

Adult education has, in Professor H. A. Jones's words, been concerned 'with the quality of life of all ranks of men, but especially the underprivileged. The aim . . . the enlargement of knowledge, not simply for its own delight or for personal enrichment or advancement, but for the discharge of democratic responsibility'.[2]

[1] *Adult Education: A Plan for Development*, Report by a Committee of Inquiry . . . under the chairmanship of Sir Lionel Russell.

[2] H. A. Jones. 'A rationale for adult education', in M. D. Stephens and G. W. Roderick, *Teaching Techniques in Adult Education*, p. 192, 1971.

Now, this is a very large commitment; and the fact has to be faced by the traditionalists that the very different intention of meritocrats like W. A. S. Hewins, first director of the LSE, and of democrats like R. H. Tawney, one of the founders of the WEA, resulted equally in the education of an elite. It is inevitable that those who are introduced or re-introduced to education in adult life will go on to ask for more; and it is 'those who are already educated who will exercise through Responsible Bodies' provision, the 'right of every individual to develop his abilities to the full'.[1] This is the paradox facing adult educators yet they are left with the task of continuously extending the numbers in 'all ranks of men' who can claim the right to ask for more. Resources of teachers and organizational effort which are allocated to continuing education for the educated cannot also be allocated to extending the numbers of the educated. There are real problems of priorities here which the mere cataloguing of needs does not confront.

Priorities

The dilemma facing adult educators can be made clearer by reminding oneself that those who have been caught and held for some length of time in the educational process will continue their engagement as a life-long commitment without the need of adult educational provision. If I take my own case, I know where to find the books, and the refresher courses; I can find the literature and painting, the music and drama that I need; and yet I scarcely ever attend an adult education course other than those which I teach. I can imagine myself needing a course of adult education—I recently joined a class for dog-training—but self-education is a way of life for me. If the whole population were 'plugged in' to continuing education, then we should have no need for the traditional role of adult educators as we now know them. The fact is that the whole population is not thus 'plugged in'; and the thesis of this paper is that the central concern of adult education is, and must continue to be, with hooking and holding more and more people to a commitment to continuing education.

The dilemma that we are examining arises because the expansion of educational opportunities, combined with extremely rapid changes in job opportunities, is creating a relatively large population asking for more — for higher degrees, degrees to supplement diplomas, certificates to support specialist and balancing studies and post-experience courses to widen and deepen previous studies. At the same time, the Open University has shown that part-time study, with minimal personal tuition, is not only viable but enormously cheaper than full-time residential study. With appropriate provision of study facilities at home and in public libraries, all our universities and colleges could be opened to part-time students

[1] June Purvis. 'Equality and excellence in adult education—a sociological viewpoint', in *Studies in Adult Education*, Vol. 5, No. 2, October 1973.

reaching down to social classes as yet untouched by the Open University.[1] With this expansion, and even greater potential expansion, in the numbers of adult students, it is not surprising that adult educators should seize their chance. They have experience of teaching adults, they have developed adult teaching techniques and studied the strengths and weaknesses, the motivations and resistances of adult students; they have pioneered cross-disciplinary studies and explored all the possibilities of student participation and discussion-based learning. At last, it seems that their expertise may be recognized, even within the walls of the established citadels of university education. Like Jephthah they are called back from exile to captain the army of part-time adult students, who with a minimum of paid educational leave and study facilities can be educated for a tithe of the cost of full-time students. But what will be the sacrifice if adult educators devote the greater part of their resources to this role?

The sacrifice will be the sacrifice of the traditional function of adult education, in widening the numbers of the educated and in responding to the requirements of social responsibility and democratic decision making. Of course, the adult educators do have a major contribution to make to continuing education from their experience of teaching techniques in adult education. The writings of Jenny Rogers[2] and the essays collected by Michael Stephens[3] and those in *Studies in Adult Education*[4] bear witness; but Professor Wiltshire has warned of the dangers of too much attention to 'learning needs' at the expense of relevance of purpose and commitment to social responsibility.[5]

The categorical 'ethical imperatives' of Richard Peters' adult educator[6] and the response to the requirements of social development and social change in an older generation of educators like Russell and Whitehead have been challenged not only by those who would prefer to analyse the motivations of individuals and explore the workings of group dynamics; but also by those who claim a total neutrality of 'truth seeking' for their educational activities.[7] In passing, one cannot forbear to comment that the cherished distinction made by these 'truth-seekers' between judgements of 'cognitive value' and judgements of social and political value breaks down in relation to the subjects and questions they choose to explore and the students they choose to teach. The commitment of educators like Whitehead, Russell and Tawney,

[1] Naomi McIntosh. 'The OU Student' in J. Tunstall, ed *The Open University Opens*, p. 61, 1974.
[2] Jenny Rogers. *Adults Learning*, 1971, and *Adults in Education*, 1973.
[3] M. D. Stephens. *loc cit.*
[4] T. Kelly (editor). *Studies in Adult Education*, David and Charles.
[5] Harold C. Wiltshire. 'The Concepts of Learning and Need in Adult Education' in *Studies in Adult Education*, Vol. 5, No. 1, April 1973, p. 26 ff.
[6] R. S. Peters, *Ethics and Education*.
[7] R. W. K. Paterson. 'Social change as an educational aim', in *Adult Education*, Vol. 45, No. 6, March 1973, p. 355 ff.

as of those who have followed them in assigning educational priorities, was not to a particular form of social change, but to the *fact* of social change and to widening participation in the making of social changes.[1]

Reaching the students

What then is to be the role of adult educators if they are not to be seduced from their traditional concerns into providing a specialized expertise, however important, to inform the expansion of continuing education for those adults who are already educated? It is evidently with the 80 per cent of the population who still do not continue in full-time education beyond the minimum school leaving age, and remembering that more than half of these are women. The problem, as ever, remains that of reaching more than a tiny proportion of them with the resources available, if the objectives of a liberal introduction to education are to be retained and not replaced by a narrower concept of training for specific roles and functions.

The implications of the current temptation to adult educators, especially in universities, to abandon their larger concerns are the more tragic because recent experiences in adult education of encouraging whole new groups of citizens into a continuing educational commitment have been extraordinarily encouraging. In particular one may instance: trade union education, the educational activity in community development and the growing importance of 'liberal studies' in the programmes of local authority Adult Education Centres. In all three areas there has been a real 'breakthrough' in recent years and more rather than less resources are needed if the ground won is to be held. In the case of trade union education, the TUC Education Department, as a complement to its shop-steward training programmes, has embarked with the BBC, the WEA and the Sheffield Extra-Mural Department on a massive multi-media project of trade union studies, designed to help trade unionists to be able to evaluate and to formulate trade union policies in industry and society today.[2]

In community development it is the adult educational work, especially well-known in Liverpool but rapidly spreading elsewhere, in Newham and Sheffield, to take but two examples, that is becoming the distinctive contribution to the projects.[3] The most striking indicator of the widening interest in continuing education in the local authority Adult Education Centres comes from the evidence of the recent BBC radio educational series *Living Decisions*. This was specifically designed to provide an opportunity for those who had never studied before or who had long abandoned

[1] R. H. Tawney. 'An experiment in democratic education', reprinted in Rita Hinden, ed *The Radical Tradition*, see especially p. 75 ff.

[2] M. Barratt Brown. 'A New Step in Trade Union Education', in *Adult Education*, November 1974.

[3] The National Community Development Project, *Inter Project Report*, 1974.

serious study to gain an 'O' level qualification in a broad field of study involving several disciplines. Course booklets, class programmes and correspondence courses were made available to those who wrote in for them. Roughly, 16,000 people wrote in for the first course booklet and 6,000 for the second course booklet, and of these 55 per cent had heard of the series through their Adult Education Centre and over 70 per cent joined classes at these centres; nearly 90 per cent of the 6,000 were women[1].

The future

These experiences indicate the current challenge to adult educators to maintain their traditional role of 'retrieving' students for continuing education. If they are to be true to their calling, they will have to insist on the unity of adult education and its status not only as a discipline with a certain body of educational theory and technique but as a movement of human liberation. The organizational implications of this cannot be overlooked. The historic combination of adult education and extra-mural studies will need to be preserved; the association of research, class development and teaching encouraged; the role of the WEA in providing a framework for democratic, self-organizing and continuing education enhanced; and the contribution of the universities and the WEA as 'responsible bodies' closely linked to the rapidly developing sector of local authority adult education. These things must be done, *if* the unity of adult education is to be maintained and divisions, which will ultimately weaken all the constituent parts, are to be avoided. The traditional concerns of adult educators will not be best served if adult education is divided up according to function and status—universities for research and the teaching of the teachers, the WEA for pioneering with the disadvantaged and local authority provision for basic courses. The alternative to such functional separation lies in the development councils which the Russell Committee recommends; but these councils at different levels will need to father a working integration of all adult educators in 'consortia' and 'workshops' for different aspects of adult education—for residential education, for community development, for trade union studies, for local history and the arts and for other aspects—if they are to be more than a facade behind which independent 'empires' are built and defended.

The key to the future probably lies in the ability of the universities to develop a structure of continuing education which gives to their adult education and extra-mural departments a central position in the university, not only as advisers on teaching techniques for the growing number of adult and part-time students, and as the organizers and administrators of part-time courses, but as the 'openers' of the university to the local communities, both through the closeness of their association with the WEA and the

[1] Private communication from the BBC Further Education Department.

local authorities and through their own capacity in many different fields to 'retrieve' students for continuing education. For the fulfilment of such tasks, adequate resources will have to be allocated to what have been the cinderellas of university departments, with the clear recognition that in the long-run the part-time adult student will become the equal of the full-time adolescent student in numbers and status.

Fifty years of school broadcasting and the changing curricula of primary schools: 1924-74

School broadcasting has now reached its half-century. This article sums up its achievements, and a note by K. V. Bailey suggests some further developments.

E. C. MEE

Ellen Mee, formerly Chief Inspector in the Ministry of Education, was until 1973 Consultant on Primary Education to the School Broadcasting Council of the BBC

The beginnings

After the 'epoch-making event' of weekly experimental 'wireless' programmes broadcast from Glasgow in February, and from London throughout the spring and summer, BBC broadcasting to schools began officially in London on 29 September 1924, with one series of programmes a week. In 1925 came the joint syllabus of programmes for London (the first teacher's notes?) and a year later the first pupil's pamphlet, containing a picture of an enormous class huddled between two loudspeakers.

The object of 'wireless lessons' was to 'enrich' education in the schools, mainly the 21,000 public elementary schools attended by all but a small minority of children between 5 and 14.

That enrichment was necessary cannot be doubted by any who knew the curriculum and the conditions in which it was taught 50 years ago, before primary schools were even begotten as the almost unintended by-product of the Hadow Report on the *Education of the Adolescent*, 1926.

The primary schools, in which half the children of 11 and under were housed when the 1939-45 war started, inherited, with many of the old buildings, only 68 per cent 'certificated' teachers, a quarter of whom had never been to college. They inherited also the old unimposed but universal curriculum of the all-age elementary schools and a great number of classes of 60 and over. The blackboard, 'chalk and talk', the children in desks which were not infrequently screwed to 'stepped' floors set the methods and tone of the teaching. The timetables give a clear picture of the curriculum.

After daily compulsory scripture, the subjects, some, such as arithmetic, composition and reading subdivided into 'oral', 'written'

or 'silent', were distributed over some 20-, 30-, or 60-minute periods on a firm grid. A bell at the end of each period caused all classes to change lessons simultaneously. The timetables were supposed to be signed by HMI and were strictly adhered to.

Infant education went on its own, comparatively progressive way.

This was the children's world of schooling to which the 'enrichment' by broadcasts was first offered.

In the following 50 years such 'enrichment' was to become an integral part of a completely revolutionized primary education, and so influential that it was acknowledged by teachers and HMIs alike to be not only of great benefit to the children, and often the pioneer of new educational ideas and practices, but also eventually as 'the principal agent of in-service training of teachers' and 'one of the most useful agents that there is'.[1]

Alliance with the educational world

Unlike the primary schools, BBC school broadcasting got off to a good start, even though its 'lecture' form was a bit remote from children and even though takers of it made much of their receiving apparatus themselves. Remarkably, the principles and standards of quality of material established in those early days have proved to be the strength and core of all the organic growth that followed. School broadcasting was from its conception allied with teachers and with all levels of the educational world. From the beginning it was recognized that broadcasting can never replace the teacher. According to Mary Somerville, a teacher was with her in a little rural school when together they realized from hearing a Sir Walford Davies music programme what this medium might do for children's education. All available HMIs were present at the first experimental broadcasts and the Board of Education seconded Mr. D. C. Stobart, one of their principal inspectors, to be Director of Education at the BBC. Over half a century of movement of staff between the BBC and schools, colleges and the Inspectorate has woven partnership and association ever more firmly.

Developments in the primary school

While the BBC was learning from experience how to shape broadcasts closer to the abilities and needs of young children, and while it and the schools were still wrestling with the problems of apparatus, there came in 1931 the Hadow Report on *The Primary School.* By defining the curriculum in terms of 'children's activities and experience' rather than as categories of 'knowledge to be acquired and facts to be stored', it initiated radical changes in the curriculum, methods of teaching, organization and buildings in primary schools and gave to school broadcasting the opportunities to deploy its powers to a degree never possible under the old regime.

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[1] From *The Use of Broadcasts in Schools,* Department of Education and Science *Report on Education,* No. 74, June 1972.

In 1949 the half-way development of the changing nature of primary education is significantly shown in a Ministry of Education pamphlet 49, *Seven to Eleven*, and in the corresponding changes in the 17 series of BBC broadcasts to primary schools in 1950.

The bases of the curriculum are implied in the pamphlet by descriptions and by photographs of what children are prompted to do by their own urges to learning. They move and learn to use their bodies; they explore the world around them, they learn to use their mother tongue and to count, and they are artists—in music, language and materials.

The set timetables were giving way to spacious periods of time in or out of the school building: the barriers between subjects were being broken. 'Projects' were in vogue; the children worked within a class group, but often split into smaller groups. 'Free' writing, 'free' art and craft in all kinds of materials, and 'free' movement allied to music and drama were becoming widely appreciated.

The sets of text books were fast being replaced by 'books that are books', bought singly or in small numbers for class and school libraries.

Changes in broadcasting

The titles of the 17 series of school broadcasts in 1950, still all in radio of course, show parallel changes. For example, *How Things Began*, initiated during the war and metamorphosed into *Man* in 1970, crossed the frontiers of many subjects and opened areas of factual and imaginative experience to which the children reacted by producing creative and recording work of high quality and in many forms. Two series in *Movement and Music* remain popular to this day. *Adventures in Music, Rhythm and Melody, Stories from World History* and *Travel Talks* showed the expansion of the fields in which children might work and implied the growing creative and active nature of their learning.

Broadcasting in today's primary schools

Now, in 1974, the full impact of 'experience and activity' combined with the emphasis on the differences between children in every aspect of growth, capacity and background calls for a high degree of professional skill and endless resourcefulness in the teachers. The curricula vary greatly from school to school and have a large element of guided opportunism. Set timetables are frequently replaced by 'the integrated day'.

Though initiative and creativity seem to lie mainly with the children, it is the teacher who guides, prompts and probably selects. He injects the necessary teaching, especially of skills, keeps track of pupils' progress, and calls attention to and arranges experiences to sustain and enrich what is going forward.

But these current modes of education can create some anxieties for teachers, particularly for the inexperienced. Ensuring children's

progress and their mastery of basic skills, keeping up the standard in their own planning and their sense of standard of what should be expected from the children, providing enough resources to supply material of reliable quality for children to work on—all this is not easy.

It is not therefore difficult to see why school broadcasting is now a more integral and necessary partner than ever before. Fortunately it has proved itself able to adhere to the principles established at its origin. Broadcasters still know the school and educational world well, and their standards of quality of material and presentation have been enhanced as have their technical and educational developments. Television for schools started in 1957 —radiovision in 1964. Radiovision programmes have always been mainly in full colour. Over half the output of school television is already in colour and by next year all new programmes will be made in colour so that black and white programmes will disappear progressively. Programmes for younger children have high priority in the change to colour production.

To the increasing complexity of timing, grouping and curricula and other arrangements in the schools, broadcasters have responded by varying arrangements of programmes and repeats, especially on television, and by conscious planning for variety usage. But for schools to get full benefit from broadcasting they need more, and more convenient and effective apparatus. (The BBC School Broadcasting Council's Senior Education Officer describes these future needs in the section following this article.)

A project to investigate the effects of the optimum use of broadcasting resources on teaching and learning in schools which are provided with a reasonable and adequate level of equipment was initiated in 1972 by the School Broadcasting Council and the Independent Television Authority (now Independent Broadcasting Authority) with the cooperation of over 100 schools and 57 local education authorities. An independent report on the project, *Using Broadcasts in Schools: A Study and Evaluation*, by Mr. C. G. Hayter, lately H.M. Divisional Inspector in the North Midlands, has been published by the BBC and the independent television companies.

Equipment is only justified by the advantage it makes possible. In education defined as experience, school broadcasters can play a full part, for their business is to communicate experience and stimulate mental and often physical activity in the hearer or viewer. The power of broadcasting is obvious: it offers direct experience in all forms of sound—natural, musical and spoken language in all its forms, and with language, all that the oral and written word, appropriately spoken, can convey. Through one or the other or in combination of its media, broadcasting can present the 'here and now' so effectively as to enable its hearers and watchers to see and hear in their environment familiar things they had glimpsed but never before noticed, creating the kind of interest likely to

beget further active interest and discovery. It can present the 'not here' and 'not now' more vividly than can the teacher, unaided, and in ways likely to provide starting points or welcome support for children's further investigation.

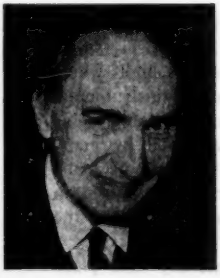
School broadcasting has contributed to practical development in many of the new ventures in primary education, especially in the musical, mathematical and scientific dimensions of experience and has pioneered new ventures in its radiovision and television sex education programmes. Television and radio have helped to tackle the problems of backward or 'slow-starter' readers. Current concern for the very young, and especially the young under-privileged children has just produced two series—one on television and one on radio, for the 'under-5's', offering examples of and materials for stimulating communication between adult and child.

Today children participate much more, both in the studio and in the classrooms. The broadcaster invites their activity and leaves them with questions to solve. By showing children at work and examples of what they can do, broadcasting presents to teachers a helpful standard of children's potential developments.

All broadcasts are greatly strengthened by the BBC's publication of full notes for the teacher for every series, and of pamphlets for pupils on most, together with work cards, worksheets, and folders for some series. Frequent bulletins deal with more general topics and reports on series.

In 1974-75 the BBC will broadcast 46 series of programmes to primary schools—32 on radio and 14 on television with 23 alternatives for Ireland, Scotland and Wales. Ninety-seven per cent of primary schools take radio and 84 per cent use BBC television.

Future developments: a note



K. V. BAILEY

Kenneth Bailey is Senior Education Officer, School Broadcasting Council, BBC

Much of the future of school broadcasting depends on the ability of schools to use it as a resource—to use live with adequate and convenient apparatus and to record, store, select, retrieve. This gives the teacher and children complete control of timing, using and repeating broadcasts at will. In an era of scarcities including paper, possibly postage facilities, packaging and transport, there will be increased advantages in making material of excellence available by electronic means. A single transmission can potentially make an experience available to tens of thousands of schools;

transmission, recording and storage, operating under whatever agreements on rights may be in force, will eliminate most of the difficulties of cost and distribution.

Certainly such a solution implies capital investment, some running costs and much training in use; but by no other means can the wealth of material available be made to serve the best purposes of primary education.

Already the video and sound cassette, the radiovision unit, the packaged kit are breaking new ground in individual and group use. Such potential is at the moment more obvious in secondary schools, because the apparatus is there. But already the success of radio series broadcast especially for use by individuals or small groups of children using tape and cassette recordings, and the beneficial effects of the possibilities of repetition and of timing at will are apparent in many schools.

Situations allowing individual choice and access offer much greater opportunities for communication between child and child and child and adult than does the older situation of 40 children and teacher sitting before screen or loudspeaker. This is not to say that for some programmes the 'big group' may not be appropriate —but the way forward is now in the direction of material cheaply diffused and recorded and selected for a very much wider range of uses in the diverse organisations of groupings within today's primary schools.

Instrumental music in schools

Recent inquiries by H.M. Inspectors show that the percentage of the school population learning an orchestral instrument is still relatively small, probably barely reaching double figures. Primary and middle schools which are fortunate enough to have the services of a visiting instrumental specialist generally provide tuition for stringed instruments, although some schools also teach woodwind and brass. The success achieved by many pupils who begin learning a stringed instrument during their primary years led many authorities to develop the teaching of instrumental music in schools. At all stages, and for most instruments, especially the guitar, the demand for tuition outstrips the available resources.

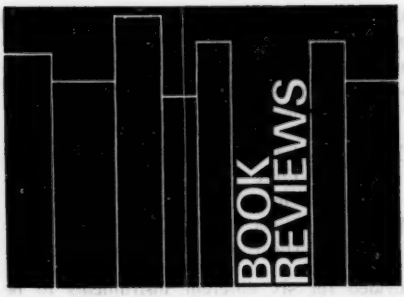
Parental support is always a vital factor. Lessons generally take place during school hours, pupils being released from their normal class lessons on a rota basis. There are elements in instrumental tuition where individual attention is vital, but group tuition (and a group may be defined as two or three pupils) at an appropriate stage of pupils' development, has positive advantages.

In one LEA with a long-established tradition, the range of instruments being taught covers all the more common orchestral and brass band instruments, as well as the guitar and piano. Returns from 36 secondary schools in this authority indicated the following distribution by instruments of pupils receiving tuition from visiting teachers:

Violin	22½%	Cello	7½%
Brass instruments ...	20 %	Flute	6½%
Guitar	15 %	Oboe	3 %
Pianoforte	11½%	Viola	1 %
Clarinet	11 %	Harp, percussion, etc.	2 %

On average the schools provided for six different instruments to be taught (brass instruments counting as one category). A quarter of the schools provided opportunities for eight or more instruments.

The total number of hours teaching by the visiting instrumental teachers ranged from 69½ hours per week in one school to 3½ hours per week in another school. The number of hours instrumental teaching/total pupil ratio ranged from 1 : 150 in one school to 1 : 19 in another. The average hours instrumental teaching/total pupil ratio was 1 : 54. Provision for the less common instruments like harp and double bass are often made at the music centres or junior music schools. It is surprising that keyboard skills, which authorities as employers often require of their teachers, especially in primary schools and music departments of secondary schools, are not more generally provided within the service. At a time of growing adult interest and involvement in the arts here, there is every encouragement for the instrumental work in schools to flourish.



What shall we teach?: designing and organizing a progressive curriculum

John E. Merritt

Ward Lock Educational £2·00 (£1·25 paperback)

This fairly slim volume of 78 pages has a very praiseworthy aim. It is written to help teachers prepare their pupils for the rapidly changing conditions of the modern world. It concentrates on personal management, the management of one's own affairs, and development. The two major types of analysis presented in this book originated in studies carried out by students taking advanced courses of study at an Institute of Education. There is an emphasis on how the theories presented can be used in the classroom with most of the examples taken from the top end of the junior school.

Personal management here is seen to consist of four elements, goal, plan, implementation, and development — known as the GPID cycle. These terms, or ones like them, will be familiar to all those who have studied management techniques and considered their application to student learning. The important thing is the emphasis on the fact that, as children are now given more responsibility for organizing their own learning, they should have some instruction in how to do it. Each stage of the cycle is gone into in some detail, and I found the critical path analysis demonstrated for the planning stage and its use in the classroom particularly interesting. There are those of us who spend most of our time on such activities and never reach the next stage of implementation. One wonders if any members of the classes described fell into this category. The major part of the book is devoted to this particular technique, and as the text explains it is a method followed intuitively by many experienced teachers. It is therefore a useful statement for those with little intuition and limited experience.

The final chapter attempts to show a way of producing a curriculum in terms of the major roles we play in life. These are said to be home and family, employment, consumer, leisure and community. There can be no doubt that these categories are important but not as the basic foundations of a school curriculum. The author states that there is much to criticize in the way schools plan and implement their integrated studies and humanities courses; this book will encourage all who read it to be more analytical in their approach, but it cannot give us all the answers.

V.J.E.

Innovation in higher education

K. G. Collier (editor)

National Foundation for Educational Research £2·15

This book is the fruit of a study-group set up under the auspices of the Society for Research into Higher Education. The editor's introduction explains that its format, a series of case-studies, arose from the study-group's conviction that the unique social structure of each educational institution and group defies attempts to generalize, and bedevils attempts to create a definitive theoretical framework for the study of education innovation. The theories already evolved by others, such as Havelock, Schon and Gross are, however, acknowledged in this introductory chapter, and an attempt to analyse the case studies in theoretical terms is made in Professor Joselin's final chapter.

No serious student of innovation, and no responsible administrator in higher education, can really afford not to read these six case-studies. Their importance lies not only in the brave effort to derive lessons for the future and for others which each of their authors has made; it lies also in the unexpected bonus of a fascinating picture of the varied and lively world of higher education in this country. The six studies span the training of architects, teachers, social scientists at a polytechnic, biologists in universities, and doctors in undergraduate and post-graduate medical schools. They underline the diverse problems faced by these groups, and the very individual way in which these problems are tackled. Do any common themes emerge? Perhaps most heartening, and indeed implicit in the theme of the book itself, is the attention now paid in many higher education circles to the methodological processes of teaching, and to the more profound questions of goals within society. One is left heartened by this sense of a new dialogue well begun, though perhaps saddened by the isolation of each professional group as it examines its own education and training. One hopes that the publication of this book is a sign that the professional walls are beginning to be breached. P.P.

The National—story of a pioneer college

Dorothy Stone

Brighton Polytechnic Press

In the centenary year of the foundation of the National Training School of Cookery—later the National College of Domestic Science—a worthy monument has appeared. The origins of the college lay in the Great Exhibition of 1851, from which many civilizing enterprises drew their inspiration. From 1873 to 1962 it passed through many vicissitudes and won to itself extraordinary loyalties. The object of the school was to diffuse a knowledge of cookery amongst all classes of Her Majesty's subjects and in its heyday the breadth of its influence seems to have been remarkable. The idea that the private household and institutions such as the hospitals and the armed forces would gain from expertise in the selection and preparation of food inspired the work which was pioneered at first in Exhibition Road and soon in Buckingham Palace Gate. Devoted and in some cases, extraordinary personalities were involved in its growth. Although the characteristics of its founders and those who guided its early course were essentially Victorian, there is a link with a different kind of enlightenment through the strange fact that the first 'lady supervisor' was Thomas Love Peacock's grand-daughter, only child by a first marriage of the lady who was briefly to become Mrs. George Meredith. In keeping a precarious craft afloat one notes the significant help of various members of the Royal Family, of the ubiquitous Henry Cole, of the first Duke of Westminster, Sir Isadore Salmon and many others. There is a memorable portrait of Hermann Sen, the dynamic Swiss master chef, promoter on the college's behalf of vast demonstration banquets to which all fashionable Edwardian society seems to have been attracted with the result that financial aid for the college's more idealistic aim of training teachers was temporarily secured. When the great age of eating passed, the financial difficulties began again and after a protracted struggle brought the college to an end as an institution, though its influence certainly remained.

In this book what seems often a strange but always a socially significant part of the educational scene is exposed in great detail, which occasionally overlies the liveliness and humour of the author's style. The book is profusely and fascinatingly illustrated and admirably designed and printed. It reminds us that there are far too few histories of technical fur-

ther education, and as a splendid example to others it should have a place in every college library.

D.M.H.

Geography and younger children

Eric J. Barker

University of London Press £2·90 (£1·45 paperback)

Eric J. Barker died at the age of 47 years before this work was published. The book records his deep interest in the geographical education of primary school children. The text is divided into three major sections; the first is concerned with a brief survey of the growth of geographical education in schools since the nineteenth century, its long-term aims and the more immediate objectives of the teacher; the second outlines the tools of the geography teacher and the skills, both specific and general, which it is hoped to foster; the third discusses the use of the local and more distant environments and concludes with a limited consideration of the current trend towards integration of subject disciplines. In the last section the author's emphasis on the need for careful planning is a salutary one but unfortunately there is no discussion or illustration of the essential geographical ideas which the teacher should be considering when formulating his work within an integrated scheme. For this reason the experienced teacher is unlikely to find the book a particularly satisfying addition to the literature on the subject. On the other hand, the student interested in the evolution of primary geographical teaching and the parent seeking some clarification of the teacher's problems and the background to changes taking place in geography teaching in primary schools are likely to find this a useful explanatory text. Those seeking more positive help and guidance with geography method in their day-to-day work in school will wish to consult other more detailed recent publications on the same theme.

D.H.

Reviews in brief

Parent power: a dictionary guide to your child's education and schooling

Nicholas Bagnall (editor)

Routledge and Kegan Paul £1·95
Fontana £0·40

This book is a quick reference guide for parents, dealing not only with likely problems but with the system of education as a whole and with the different types of education available within the state and private sectors. Legal rights are explained briefly, and in most cases advice on where to go for further advice follows the alphabetical subject list.

Educationalists generally and parents in particular will find this small book a useful source of information.

Power and politics in the school system: a guidebook

Michael Locke

Routledge and Kegan Paul £3·00 (£1·50 paperback)

Here is a guidebook through the maze of the school system intended for parents, teachers, administrators, students, and members of the public generally. The various parts of the education system and how the interconnect are explained—nothing new here, perhaps, but further sections on the unions, pressure groups, education for social change, and power and participation will enlighten many readers. There is a section on suggested further reading and a useful index.

A mythology of British education

Robert Bell and Nigel Grant

Panther £0·50

'Education is supposed to be concerned with reason and intelligence' but 'it lends itself in practice to at least as much superstition and myth as any other human activity'. The authors of this delightfully iconoclastic book are dedicated to exposing what they believe to be common superstitions and myths. Whether you agree with them or not, the authors have written an engaging book.

The industrial film guide

Helen Steadman (editor)

Kogan Page £4·00

Schools, colleges, and any other organizations that make use of films for seminars, conferences, or educational purposes generally, will find this a valuable source book. It lists 2000 films on industrial subjects and classifies them by subject, giving hire charges and purchase prices. In addition, there is a guide to hiring and purchasing equipment, a list of film producers specializing in industrial topics, an alphabetical list of film titles, and a subject index.

Statistics for the teacher

A. C. Crocker

NFER Publishing Co. £1·45

This is a completely revised edition of the book first published by Penguin in 1969. As the title indicates, it is intended for teachers in the first place, but it deserves a wider audience. Its account of elementary statistical techniques is refreshingly clear, and the examples are well chosen and, above all, relevant to the kinds of situation teachers are likely to come across. Whether we like it or not, we *need* to know something about statistics. Tables, graphs and bar charts have become part of our daily lives. It is always useful to have a handbook with us when we pick our way across the minefield.

Additional books received

ALLEN, DAVID (editor). Early years at school.
(BBC Publications) £0·70.

BERSTECHER, DIETER, *et al.* Project 1: Educating man for the 21st century. Vol. 6: A university of the future.
(Martinus Nijhoff) 30 Dutch florins.

BEYER, EVELYN. Teaching young children.
(Pitman) £2·00,
£0·90 (paperback).

BORGHI, LAMBERTO. Project 1: Educating man for the 21st century. Vol. 7: Perspectives in primary education.
(Martinus Nijhoff) 38·50 Dutch florins.

BOWSKILL, DEREK. Drama and the teacher.
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CLAYDON, L. F. Renewing urban teaching.
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HOLDER, M. L., and R. MITSON. Resource centres.
(Methuen) £0·90.

LEVITAS, MAURICE. Marxist perspectives in the sociology of education.
(Routledge & Kegan Paul) £4·00,
£2·00 (paperback).

LIVINGSTONE, HUGH. The university: an organizational analysis.
(Blackie) £1·20.

McCULLAGH, SHEILA. Into new worlds: a guide to teaching reading.
(Hart-Davis) £1·75.

McNALLY, D. W. Piaget, education and teaching.
(New Educational Press) £1·95.

RENNIE, J., *et al.* Schools Council Working Paper 51; Social education: an experiment in four secondary schools.
(Evans/Methuen) £1·10.

ROGERS, REX S. Sex education: rationale and reaction.
(Cambridge) £5·00,
£2·25 (paperback).

THYNE, JAMES M. Principles of examining.
(University of London Press) £3·50
£1·85 (paperback),

WARDLE, DAVID. The rise of the schooled society: the history of formal schooling in England.
(Routledge & Kegan Paul) £3·25.

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Careers Education in Secondary Schools. Education Survey 18. Price 68p, by post 75p.

School Geography in the Changing Curriculum. Education Survey 19. Price 40p, by post 47p.

EDUCATION PAPERBACKS (intended mainly for parents but of use to teachers and others).

Inside the Primary School by John Blackie, formerly Chief Inspector of Primary Schools. Price 28p, by post 35p (1967).

Inside Comprehensive Schools by Tyrrell Burgess. Price 30p, by post 39p (1970).

Inside the Colleges of Further Education by Adrian Bristow, Principal of Chester College of FE. Price 30p, by post 37p (1971).

These publications are available from HMSO, PO Box 569, London SE1 9NH, or from any bookseller.

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